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## REPORT ON NEW YORK UNIVERSITY'S THIRD ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

### Issue Editor's Introduction-

The present issue of the *Journal of Educational Sociology* is made up of papers presented at the Third Annual Conference on Comparative Education, New York University, April 27, 1956. The general theme of the conference was "Comparative Education in Theory and Practice." The participants represented such institutions and organizations as Rutgers University, Springfield College, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Kent State University, Boston College, Hunter College, State University of New York College for Teachers (Albany), Hamilton College, Teachers College at Columbia University, Ohio State University, New York University, University of Michigan, Bethany College, American University, Brooklyn College, United Nations, Institute of International Education, Modern Language Association of America, Board of Education of the City of New York, and the Arabian American Oil Company. One of the guests was a specialist in the teaching of foreign languages from Germany.

After the presentation and discussion of the papers, the members of the conference decided to form a Comparative Education Society, with membership open to American and foreign professors of comparative education and others in the field. It endorsed a proposal to organize a Comparative Education Section within the framework of the National Society of College Teachers of Education. An organizing committee formulated a set of objectives, proposed activities, and elected officers of the new society. The undersigned was chosen president, with Dr. Robert B. Sutton of the Ohio State University as vice-president, and Dr. Gerald Read of Kent State University (Kent, Ohio) as secretary treasurer.

The speakers at the conference were most cooperative in all respects. Also deserving of thanks for their interest are the participants. The writer's work as chairman of the conference was made much easier and much more pleasant by the cooperation of the following persons: Associate Dean Alonzo G. Grace and Associate Dean Ralph E. Pickett, School of Education, New York University; Ray A. Harned, instructor in education at New York University, his student; and Miss Natalie Vogel, his secretary.

WILLIAM W. BRICKMAN

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## THE COMPARATIVE EDUCATION CONFERENCE OF 1956

Alonzo G. Grace

I am happy to extend to the participants in the third annual Conference on Comparative Education a cordial welcome on the part of the administration of our University and School of Education. Universities concerned with international education and international relations should recognize the important role that comparative education can play in the program of those who may become specialists in the area. Perhaps the more important contribution is the greater opportunity presently to begin to equip Americans who are assigned to missions abroad with a more basic concept of educational systems and cultural patterns of other areas of the world. This obviously is important for any American assigned to a mission abroad, but especially to members of educational and cultural missions.

Far too frequently the concept of educators in this country, when assigned to a mission abroad, has been the transplanting of the American system of education. We frequently forget that what the people of the world want is not charity but self-help. We need to recognize that education the world over is involved in new relationships between individuals of the state, among states, and groups within the states. The national aims of education are of deep concern and importance to men and nations. Whether the education of the human being be for his ultimate subordination and subservience to the state, or whether man by nature free shall be educated as master of his own destiny and progenitor of law and order, humanity, social justice, and everlasting peace represent the extreme.

Education is a vehicle by means of which the cultural heritage of a nation is transmitted from generation to generation. On the other hand, it is important to recognize that it is also the instrument by which a country is advanced and the life of a people improved from generation to generation. We should learn that each nation has its own cultural pattern, and there must be respect for the individuality of each nation; that each nation has a contribution to make toward the total world cultural pattern; and that cultural cooperation should supplant cultural competition. We must recognize that those elements that lead to narrow nationalism, racism, social prejudice, or the superior race concept are among the factors that lead to social strife. These are factors in a culture that men, through their own good will, must remove. We need to recognize the importance of communication and meaning rather than mere translation. Language has inherent weak-

nesses when it becomes necessary to translate the national and emotional content of words and sentences from one language to another. The same word, in different tongues, may produce a different emotional reaction. And so too with values.

We pointed out at the last conference that many of the educational problems confronted by the world are common, that is, the lack of classrooms, shortages of teachers, or finance. In Pakistan, for example, it is estimated that, by 1957, if the primary education expands as rapidly as it has in the past five years, 86,000 new teachers will be required. The capacity to finance an educational system is a serious problem in practically all countries. In many countries the primary goal is the removal of illiteracy and, concurrently with that, the removal of poverty, disease, and the environment of futility which circumscribes so many people.

This conference is to discuss the theory and practice of comparative education, and for this year Professor Brickman has been invited to prepare a paper on this subject. Perhaps we are groping in some respects, and that we need to discover what we mean by comparative education. It certainly involves more than the unreliable statistical data about educational systems which cannot be properly interpreted without knowing the facts on which these statistics are based.

This third conference should come to some decision concerning the future. Should there be an affiliation with some national organization, as for example the American Association for the Advancement of Science, or the History of Education Section of the National Society of College Teachers of Education, or some other organization? It is important, it seems to me, that some organized method be found to carry on an annual conference somewhere in the United States on this important subject. We have been more than willing, in order that the great work of Professor Kandel and other early pioneers in this area be continued. The School of Education of New York University through the leadership of Professor Brickman has been able through this conference and the publication of the proceedings to rekindle an interest in this field. We shall feel amply repaid. I think commendations should also be expressed to the staff of the United States Office of Education for the development of a sound and effective service in this area.

Alonzo G. Grace is Associate Dean, School of Education, New York University.

## THE THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

William W. Brickman

Since the end of World War II, there has been a rapid growth of interest in foreign travel and in the visitation of cultural institutions abroad. In practically no time at all, groups were formed to spend summer vacations in traveling through various European and Latin American countries, not only for the sake of viewing the sights but also to learn at first hand something of the national cultures. Some colleges and universities organized tours for credit and, in order to give "academic" status to their projects, have conferred the title of "comparative Education" on the trips. In many, if not most, instances the directors of these tours had never before been identified with the professional field of Comparative Education. Indeed, some came from other academic disciplines and made themselves, or were made, overnight authorities on the subject of Comparative Education.

During the past two or three years, moreover, there have been increasing numbers of persons who have been visiting on the other side of the Iron Curtain. With travel opportunities to the U.S.S.R. more plentiful than ever before, Americans have been spending more and more time in examining the Soviet way of life by actual contact rather than by reading reports by others. Before long, reports on Soviet education began to appear in the public press and in the popular magazines. These articles, for the most part, were written by persons whose specialties were in fields other than Comparative Education and many of them were not at home in the Russian language. In any event, the public became aware of differences between the systems of education in the U. S. A. and the U. S. S. R. Comparative Education had arrived, even in non-professional circles.

Comparative Education is very often regarded as basically a practical field. It is often defended as an area of study on the ground that it is of great value to school and university administrators, to educational officials in the government, to individuals engaged in organizing student and teacher exchanges, and to experts going on foreign technical assistance missions. There can be no doubt that these are worthwhile functional values of Comparative Education. Yet, it is important to ask ourselves if we have done our duty to this field in stressing its practicality. Any practical work which is founded on ideas and scholarly data must necessarily be rooted in a theoretical basis. Without a strong theoretical substratum, the practice tends to lose direction and its professional character.

According to Dr. I. L. Kandel, "Comparative Education, the study of current educational theories and practices as influenced by different backgrounds, is but the prolongation of the history of



education into the present."<sup>1</sup> This statement is significant because it connects Comparative Education to a recognized academic study and implies a similarity in methods of research. Too often, writers on Comparative Education give lip service to historical forces and causal relations without using strict canons of inquiry.

The composite definition in the "Dictionary of Education" (1945), edited by Carter V. Good, is as follows: "A field of study dealing with the comparison of educational theory and practice in different countries for the purpose of broadening and deepening understanding of educational problems beyond the boundaries of one's own country." Here we are given something which is basically very much like Kandel's definition, but which adds an important value. However, use is made of the term "comparison," and there arises the difficulty of how a word ("comparative") may be defined in its own terms ("comparison"). Likewise weak is R. H. Eckelberry's definition,<sup>2</sup> the first part of which reads almost verbatim like that of the "Dictionary."

It is clear that a proper definition of Comparative Education is not a simple matter. One must agree with Nicholas Hans that "there is no general agreement as to what Comparative Education comprises or exactly what methods should be used in its study."<sup>3</sup> More recently, similar conclusions have been expressed by scholars of other nationalities. Professor Robert King Hall, in his major address at the Second Annual Conference on Comparative Education at New York University, lamented that "there is very little agreement... as to what constitutes the discipline of comparative education—nor, for that matter, as to whether such a discipline even exists."<sup>4</sup> The proceedings of the international conference on Comparative Education, concerned by the Unesco Institute for Education in the spring of 1955 at Hamburg, recorded that Professor B. Z. Egemen of Turkey "confessed that he had now no clear idea of what was meant by Com-

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<sup>1</sup> I. L. Kandel, "National Backgrounds of Education," *Twenty-Fifth Year-book*, National Society of College Teachers of Education, University of Chicago Press, 1937, p. 163.

<sup>2</sup> R. H. Eckelberry, "Comparative Education," in Walter S. Monroe, editor, "Encyclopedia of Educational Research," revised edition (New York: Macmillan, 1950), p. 283.

<sup>3</sup> N. Hans, "Comparative Education," (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1949), p. 1.

<sup>4</sup> R. K. Hall, "The Improvement of the Teaching of Comparative Education," in W. W. Brickman, editor, "The Teaching of Comparative Education" (New York: School of Education, New York University, 1955), p. 4.

parative Education."<sup>5</sup> This scholar "thought that it was more important to give a description of Comparative Education than to find a definition."<sup>6</sup> The report of the session on the definition of Comparative Education concludes as follows: "It was ultimately agreed that, for the time being, no attempt should be made to define Comparative Education."<sup>7</sup>

More satisfaction may be obtained from a consideration of the aims and values of Comparative Education. It would seem that there can be no controversy about the fundamental aim. To this writer, the irreducible aim of Comparative Education is to furnish reliable information concerning the educational systems, ideas, and problems of various countries, including one's own. A second significant aim is to provide the framework, techniques, interpretation, and conclusions of a comparative study of educational systems and problems.

European experts, following the lead of Professor Friedrich Schneider of Munich and Salzburg, have tended to differentiate between *Auslandspädagogik* and *Vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft*. The former term is applied to the data on the educational system of a particular country and does not involve comparative analysis. Schneider maintains that this is a preliminary and auxiliary study, along with sociology, history, and others, to Comparative Education. At first glance, this is a plausible position. Comparative Education, from this point of view, is an advanced study, a synthesis, which views educational matters in perspective. Upon closer examination, however, it will be seen that this is a restricted approach to this significant subject. As in the case of other synthetizing subjects, it invites haste and superficiality in the formation of hypotheses and conclusions. There is also a faint hint of "mere facts," the disparagement of which often results in distortion.

It is here advocated, in line with the first aim mentioned above, that what is called *Auslandspädagogik* be regarded as an indispensable part of Comparative Education. That is to say, the specialist in Comparative Education should not deem it beneath his dignity to dirty his hands with the innumerable details connected with the description of one or more systems of education. Only in this type of research will he be able to appreciate the subtleties that underlie school systems and educational controversies. Once he has made himself a master of the research process of gathering and evaluating his

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<sup>5</sup> "Comparative Education" (Hamburg: Unesco Institute for Education, 1955), p. 4.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 30

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*

basic facts, then the student becomes qualified to pursue the second aim of Comparative Education, interpretative analysis.

This approach may be examined in the light of Kandel's idea that Comparative Education is "the prolongation of the history of education into the present." Certainly, it is not possible to study history in a scholarly manner except by rigid adherence to the canons of historical research. In a similar way, there must be a painstaking examination of all relevant documents of recent and contemporary origin before any valid comparisons can be undertaken.

Furthermore, as Kandel recently stated, "Like the study of the history of education, comparative education seeks to discover underlying causes to explain why the educational systems differ from each other, what are their motivating aims and purposes, what their sources are, and what general principles may emerge."<sup>8</sup> If causes are to be ascertained, then a carefully controlled methodology must be followed. At best, one may come up with apparent or putative cause-and-effect relationships, but these would be more reliable than speculation about causality.

Comparative Education helps the educator with a fuller understanding of his own educational system and problems. The tendency toward unquestioning acceptance of the educational system or toward hasty and unreasoned criticism can be checked or even reversed by an awareness of what other nations are doing and thinking in educational matters. Even the simple knowledge of such a fact that England has problems in the teaching of reading may serve to make an American educator take another look at his own situation.

Another factor in the weakening of pedagogical parochialism is the growth of appreciation of the educational thought and achievement in foreign countries. If one reads the foreign reports on educational developments, he will become convinced that educators in foreign countries, too, have difficulties in maintaining a high quality of educational service. A deeper study of a country's educational literature may reveal an interesting essay or book. The discovery of other educational thinkers may lead to the feeling that foreigners have ideas which are of significance for discussion and debate.

The examination of educational problems in international perspective helps to develop an objective attitude toward these issues. For example, the wave of teachers' strikes in the United States during the past decade has caused considerable consternation and criticism in professional circles. Familiarity with teachers' grievances and

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<sup>8</sup> I. L. Kandel, "The Study of Comparative Education," *Educational Forum*, XX, November, 1955, p. 5.

actions in other countries will, in all probability, result in a middle-of-the-road point of view on teachers' strikes. The annual spring-disturbances among the collegiate youth of America can be looked at in connection with the political riots involving university students all over the world. It is somewhat illuminating to learn the details and the possible causes of student misbehavior in India, what one correspondent has described as "one of the country's serious problems: trouble on the campus."<sup>9</sup>

Still another consideration is the possibility that foreign educational ideas and practices may be adapted to the needs of the educator's own school system. In general, there seem to be some sharply contrasting attitudes with regard to educational borrowing across national frontiers. Very few persons would care to oppose actively any foreign attempt to take advantage of the educational experience of their country. They would, in fact, look upon such an attempt as a form of admiration and would help along to the utmost of their ability. The culturally and educationally advanced nations, moreover, do not hesitate to send forth experts to aid the less developed countries.

When it comes to borrowing, on the other hand, there may prevail other approaches. Some educators, when visiting schools abroad or reading foreign educational literature, may be inclined to want to put into practice what had intrigued them. Of course, they might not have studied these procedures at sufficient length in their native atmosphere, nor might they have paid sufficient attention to their domestic situation. An example of this problem appears to be the current controversy in England over the comprehensive high school.

Certainly, any fundamental educational change must be considered with considerable caution. However, this does not mean that borrowing of educational practices is to be discouraged. Some experimentation should be done with methods of restricted scope which have proved successful elsewhere. This is where Comparative Education can be of use to an educator by making him aware of the fact that something of educational significance is going on somewhere and that he should exercise controlled judgment in considering adaptation to the requirements of the schools under his jurisdiction.

Specialists in Comparative Education have been warning for some time that it is not possible to export an educational system to another country. To this we might add the conviction that it is virtually as impossible to introduce *in toto* any basic educational change into a foreign school system. Yet, educators should not make themselves

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<sup>9</sup> A. M. Rosenthal, "Campus Disorder Studied in India," *New York Times*, November 6, 1955.

inhospitable to new ideas and practices. Just as it is not logical to accept uncritically what seems scholastically successful in another country, it is equally incorrect to steel oneself against anything that is not native in origin. In the history of international educational relations there are numerous instances of how one country borrowed cultural and educational ideas and procedures from other countries, with beneficial consequences resulting to all concerned. There are also examples of ill-considered transfers. The watchword, therefore, should be: *Caveat Educator!* To adapt or not to adapt foreign school procedures—here Comparative Education can throw much light.

The study of Comparative Education is of value in that it makes it possible for one to analyze education at home and abroad in relation to the forces of society, culture, economics, and politics. The serious student of the nature of the educational process must take such forces into account if he is to understand the educational situation rightly. In addition, he must make constant use of history to clarify and interpret current educational problems, conflicts, and controversies. No issue in the field of education stands on its own feet, but it is rather related to and dependent upon other factors, not the least of which is the historical. Since Comparative Education is concerned with the multilateral analysis of education, it can be credited with making the student and educator conscious of the need for more than quick thinking and explanation.

The last of the values of Comparative Education to be considered at this time is the development in the educator of an attitude of modesty regarding innovation or uniqueness in education. There are educators in the United States—and elsewhere—whose field of vision is limited by the geographical area where they are serving. Such persons are prone to think of their ideas and methods as being different from those of other educators. Of course, reading, visitation of schools, and attendance at conferences should dispel many such notions, but not all educators, regrettably, keep abreast of what is going on in the field of education. On a larger scale, a greater number of educators think that the school systems of their country are unique and possibly unsurpassed. Such opinions are frequent lamentably, because we are human. For professionals, however, it is not fitting to have grandiose or otherwise incorrect impressions of the relative position of their schools from an international standpoint. It is here that the field of Comparative Education can be of much help in influencing the educator to make a modest, balanced estimation of his and other educational systems.

In this connection we should also mention that it is of great importance to refrain from exercising moral value judgments in most



cases when foreign educational procedures are observed directly or studied through writings. What may be good for us, may not be appropriate for them, and vice versa. Undoubtedly, value judgments are of dubious standing if not based upon thorough and unbiased examination in the native context. On the other hand, there are times when one must make a moral value judgment in education where there is danger to groups of people or to other nations.

Value judgments in general have their place when we examine the relationship of practice to theory. Practice may conform to theory, or it may do so to some extent, or it may not at all. The expert in Comparative Education must devise a technique for determining if there is a positive connection between educational theory and practice in a given country. In this way, he may be able to arrive at one of the elements in the analytical process of Comparative Education. Another relationship which yields value judgment is the causal. When a direct line is established between a cause and an effect, by means of a carefully controlled method of inquiry, one is in a position to characterize with reasonable assurance the outcome of this relationship. More specifically, the specialist in Comparative Education may be able to appraise the effectiveness of a solution to a certain problem, taking all necessary factors and conditions into consideration.

Perhaps some day an expert will discover a research design to determine comparatively the effectiveness of the solutions of an educational problem by two or more countries. At that time it may become possible to make really significant value judgments in education on an international level. This is a high grade of comparison.

One of the most complicated and probably least understood concepts in Comparative Education is the nature of the comparative procedure. Many writers refer to comparison, but they are not always clear as to what it means. We frequently find in the literature the idea that Comparative Education is a discipline which is more or less similar in nature to comparative anatomy, comparative literature, comparative government, comparative language, and comparative religion. This may establish the fact that Comparative Education has a claim to professional existence. Upon closer analysis, however, there is some reasonable doubt as to whether there is a genuine similarity between Comparative Education and the comparative phrases of the other subjects. Many in education are familiar in a general way with comparative government and comparative religion, but the general impression is that the specialists in those areas are not making use of a refined comparative methodology and are not even much concerned to find one. The content of these fields, as evidenced by several textbooks, appear to correspond to *Auslandspädagogik*, rather

than to Comparative Education with its analyses, interpretations, and even value judgments.

An heretical thought now rears its head. The national educational system of modern times is a creature of national government and, in most countries, there is a direct dependence by the schools upon the political authority. The question now arises: Is Comparative Education a field of study in its own right or is it a branch of Comparative Government? Let us not attempt to answer this question at the present time, but it might be considered in future discussions.

The techniques of comparison in education require the full attention of all specialists. However, since this presentation is devoted to theoretical foundations, it may be sufficient at this point to mention the problems which lie at the bottom of the methodological side of Comparative Education. First, the specialist must consider his overall objective, whether to undertake a general or a specific comparison.

The general comparison may be horizontal or vertical. The horizontal type of comparative analyses seeks to examine two or more national school systems in their contemporary manifestations. This is an exceptionally difficult, if not impossible, task, in view of the fact that a tremendous amount of research work must be done, an inordinate amount of objectivity must be at the command of the investigator or investigators, and orchestral view of the educational enterprises of several nations must be obtained. There are very few works which approach these requirements with even a modicum of success. Most of them contain much descriptive matter, but few and shallow comparative analyses. Perhaps it may be well to leave the overall study of national school systems to the realm of *Auslandspädagogik*.

A more reliable kind of horizontal comparison would seem to be the simultaneous examination of education in two areas within federated nations. Thus, one state or a group of states in the southern part of the United States might be compared to other states in the North; the province of Quebec in Canada with Ontario or British Columbia; Ukraine with Georgia or Byelorussia in the U. S. S. R.; Canton Zürich with Canton Geneva in Switzerland; the Flemish area with the Walloon in Belgium; or England with Scotland. In all these examples there are many comparable educational elements and common practices.

Vertical comparison is concerned with comparative historical analysis. One procedure is to study the educational work in some country or part of the country at two different periods of time. As a kind of example of this type of research, we might refer to "Then and Now in Education, 1845: 1923," by Otis W. Caldwell and Stuart A. Curtis (Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1925). Furthermore,

the study of education in two or more countries during a particular historical period is another procedure in vertical comparison.

Several difficulties come to mind. The comparative studies within a single country and the comparative historical studies do not fall within the scope of Comparative Education as understood by most workers in the field. This does not mean, however, that the conception of Comparative Education should not be broadened, but it would be desirable for the specialists to give some thought to this question.

The temptation to the enumeration of superficial resemblances and differences among the school systems of various nations may be great whenever one undertakes a large-scale study in Comparative Education. Enough has been said about the problem of comparison to indicate that comparative statements should be made only after thorough examination and objective analysis of authentic data within their proper setting. Perhaps we should discourage comparative studies of complete school systems until after one has had a long period of experience. It may also be appropriate to include among the difficulties of general comparison the frequent lack of a precise methodology of full concentration of all those who are professionally engaged in Comparative Education. The development of clear-cut procedures in arriving at conclusions of a comparative nature will go a long way toward convincing persons in education and other fields that Comparative Education has all the requisites of a scholarly area of inquiry.

Perhaps the most fruitful type of research is the specific comparison. Here we examine particular problems, ideas of scholastic levels in the context of their respective milieus. It should be less troublesome to arrive at conclusions in a case where one element is being investigated than where an entire educational complex is under consideration. Yet, even when we study one educational factor comparatively, there are pitfalls. Let us illustrate this point with a reference to a recent compilation of statistics on the number of teachers in the United States. In discussing their figures, the compilers stress that "interstate comparisons cannot be accepted at their face value because of the variation among the States in the minimum requirements for standard teaching certificates."<sup>10</sup> If this is true with regard to the several states in a single country, then the dangers of making comparisons across national lines turn out to be much greater. Nevertheless, the real student will not be discouraged. *Si vis, potes.*

What is required is the development of objective criteria for use in comparative analysis. These should be standards against which one might place the educational situations of the various countries. Here it is illuminating to quote Professor Robert Ulich: "All true

comparison needs a *tertium comparationis*, or an organized demonstration of those factors which the events [in education] . . . have, or have not, in common, as well as an analysis of the causes and reasons which make for community, likeness, and difference."<sup>11</sup> Let it be hoped that, in the not too distant future, increasing use will be made of objective criteria in all comparative research.

Finally, account should be taken of some general principles which may be presumed to be basic to Comparative Education. In the first place, education depends upon a variety of factors—historical, economical, social, political, religious, cultural, and others. A mature study of any educational system or problem must take these matters into consideration. Second, a national system of education includes not only schools, but also the different informal agencies of cultural interaction and public enlightenment. Not enough of our studies in Comparative Education devote space, for instance, to the press and other media of mass communication. Likewise lacking in many works in the field are estimations of the influence of scholarly and professional (not merely pedagogical) organizations and publications.

A third principle that cannot be overlooked is the fact that differences in education are not only inevitable, but also desirable. To some, this may be too self-evident to require mention, but it seems that quite a number of persons who are involved in one way or another in Comparative Education tend to forget the words of Terence: "quot homines, tot sententiae."

We are now at the end of our tentative and timorous try to formulate the theoretical foundations of Comparative Education. More exploration is needed and more rigorous thinking is desirable. To the extent that a solid body of theoretical foundations may be laid for Comparative Education, to that extent will the subject become more useful to education and to society at large and will gain a wider acceptance in academic, pedagogical, and public circles.

William W. Brickman is Chairman, Department of History of Education, School of Education, New York University; Editor of *School and Society*; and President, Comparative Education Society.

<sup>10</sup> S. Schloss and C. J. Hobson, "Fall, 1955 Statistics on Enrollment, Teachers, and Schoolhousing in Full-Time Public Elementary and Secondary Day Schools," Circular No. 467, U. S. Office of Education (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1956, p. 2.

<sup>11</sup> R. Ulich, "Some Observations Concerning the Study of Comparative Education," in W. W. Brickman, editor, "The Role of Comparative Education in the Education of Teachers" (New York: School of Education, New York University, 1954), p. 12.

## **COMPARATIVE EDUCATION IN THE WORK OF THE UNITED NATIONS AND UNESCO**

**Dorothy G. Collings**

As specialists in comparative education, you and your colleagues both in this country and abroad are playing a dynamic role in the building of a world community, not only by adding to the corpus of knowledge about and insight into the complex problems of education through your research and study, but through direct participation at the national and international levels in the hard realities of the planning and execution of educational programs in countries throughout the world.

Let us consider the question before us in terms of a few of the important problems germane to comparative education with which the United Nations and Unesco are concerned. These problems include (1) international cooperation for economic and social development, particularly through technical assistance; (2) the eradication of illiteracy, as a component part of fundamental education; (3) the extension and improvement of compulsory education; and (4) improved educational opportunities for women. Before discussing the nature and scope of these problems and the measures taken by the United Nations and Unesco to deal with them, let us first review briefly the conceptual and structural context within which their consideration takes place in the United Nations system.

The United Nations, which now has 76 member countries, was created in 1945 not only to prevent war but also to promote the economic and social advancement of all peoples through international cooperation. Under Chapter IX of the United Nations Charter, all member countries pledge themselves to take "joint and separate action" in cooperation with the United Nations to achieve the following purposes: higher standards of living, full employment, and conditions of economic and social progress and development; solutions of international, economic, social, health and related problems; and universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all. To achieve these purposes, Chapter X of the Charter established the Economic and Social Council to stimulate and coordinate the activities of the United Nations and a wide range of specialized agencies, including Unesco, aimed at the improvement of human welfare.

During this first decade of the United Nations operation, the Economic and Social Council has reaffirmed these basic priority purposes and directed the agencies to concentrate their programs around them.



More recently, in Resolution 590 (XX) of July, 1955, the Council specifically defined the overall objective of the economic, social, and human rights programs and activities of the United Nations family of organizations as being "the economic and social development of under-developed areas."

The improvement of economic, social, and educational conditions among dependent peoples in Non-Self-Governing Territories (about 150,000,000) and in Trust Territories (about 19,000,000) as essential elements in their progressive development toward self-government and independence is a further main concern of the United Nations. Chapters XI, XII, and XIII of the United Nations Charter establish the principles and procedures under which Administering Powers undertake to submit regularly to the General Assembly Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, or to the Trusteeship Council (according to the term of the relevant agreement), annual reports containing statistical and other information on economic, social, and educational conditions in the territories which they administer. These annual reports of the Administering Powers are of special interest to comparative education, since they contain the basic data upon which comparative studies regarding these areas must be constructed.

The General Assembly Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories has taken education as its principal topic of technical discussion in 1956 (results not yet published) and on two previous occasions in 1950 and 1953. Its reports, which were approved by the General Assembly,<sup>1</sup> and the special studies on which they were based,<sup>2</sup> are documents of particular interest in this field of study.

As the specialized agency concerned with education, Unesco both uses the results and contributes to the study of comparative education. Educational problems requiring comparative study arise in three ways: requests from the United Nations and the other specialized agencies; the operational program of Unesco where action and study must go hand in hand; and general problems of the comparability of data underlying the program as a whole.

In this connection, the work of Unesco's Education Clearing House in documentation, studies, and the diffusion of information

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<sup>1</sup> United Nations. Report of the Special Committee on Information . . . *General Assembly Official Records, 5th Session (A/1303/Rev.1)*, 1950; and *8th Session (A/2465)*, 1953.

<sup>2</sup> United Nations. *Information from Non-Self Governing Territories*. Volume III, 1951 (Sales No. 1951. VI. B. I. Vol. III), 344 pp.; and *Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories*, 1954. (Sales No. 1954. VI. B. I.), 133 pp.

through its own and other publications is of particular importance. Examples of this work are the basic "World Survey of Education" (2nd edition, 1955), issued at three-year intervals; studies and memoranda on educational problems for the General Assembly Committee on Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories; yearly comments on the Administering Powers' Reports, prepared for the Trusteeship Council; studies and statistics related to the access of women to education, prepared for the Commission on the Status of Women of the Economic and Social Council; and a wide range of publications on subjects relevant to the basic elements of Unesco's program, such as fundamental education and compulsory education.

Within this general frame of reference, let us now consider in turn four main problems with which the United Nations and Unesco are concerned.

*Economic and Social Development through Technical Assistance*—The United Nations Expanded Program of Technical Assistance which began in 1950, aims to help the economically less-developed countries of the world, at the request of their governments, to increase their agricultural and industrial production, enlarge and improve their social services, and raise their living standards through an international sharing of technical skills and knowledge.

To provide such aid on a co-ordinated basis, the United Nations and seven of the Specialized Agencies (ILO, FAO, UNESCO, WHO, ITU and WMO) participate in the Expanded Program and share its funds. The program is financed by voluntary annual contributions from governments, which for 1956 total \$29,734,000. This is in addition to the funds spent on technical aid services to Member Countries out of the "regular" budgets of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies which come from their annual membership dues. Further, the technical assistance program is based on the principle of "mutual self-help." In practice, this means that each country receiving aid must appropriate considerable sums from its own national budget to pay for most of the needed equipment and supplies and other capital and local costs of the projects undertaken on its territory.

In view of the vast needs for help and the relatively limited funds available, the present United Nations program of technical assistance concentrates chiefly on sharing and developing the human resources necessary for economic and social development. For example, during 1955, 2,108 experts were at work in the field. They came from 69 different countries and territories and were sent individually or as teams to assignments in 81 countries. During the same year, 2,431 fellowships were awarded for specialized training and study in 94 countries and territories. The program also organizes national and

regional training institutes and centers, meetings and seminars of experts, and contributes to the establishment of institutions of scientific and industrial research and the organization and operation of demonstration projects and pilot plants.

Unesco's share of the Expanded Program budget for 1956 is 16.6% (\$4,940,000), as compared to 13% (\$3,937,653) in 1955. Requests now total 327 and come from 52 countries. Demand is highest for international experts to assist countries in modernizing their systems of primary and secondary education. Next comes fundamental education, followed by scientific research, technical education, science teaching, and scientific documentation centers.<sup>3</sup>

A few illustrations show the wide range and scope of Technical Assistance. In the Latin-American countries, in the Arab States, in Haiti, Ceylon, and Thailand more than 1,000 specialists in fundamental education have been trained in regional or national centers under UN-system auspices and are now at work in national programs for decreasing illiteracy and raising living standards. Over 600 engineers, foremen, and skilled workers from various branches of industry in Yugoslavia, Turkey, Bolivia, Columbia, Israel, and Iran have been placed through the ILO workers-trainees' program for observation and on-the-job training in 314 different firms in 16 host countries. Unesco has helped to reorganize primary and secondary schools in Thailand and has shared in the launching of two modern institutes of technology in India. In 12 countries on 4 continents, international experts have been provided by Unesco, ILO, and FAO to work on various aspects of water resources use and development for such purposes as power production, land reclamation and irrigation.

The methods used and results obtained by the Expanded Program are under constant study and evaluation within each of the cooperating agencies, as well as by the Working Party on Evaluation of the policy-making Technical Assistance Committee of the Economic and Social Council.

*The Eradication of Illiteracy*—The promotion of literacy is not an end in itself. It is rather an integral part of a broad attack on the complex of conditions that are detrimental to individual welfare and retard group progress. Programs of fundamental education seek to

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<sup>3</sup> See "Technical Assistance: Great Hope of the 20th Century," *Unesco Courier*, VIII, April, 1956, pp. 9-11.

<sup>4</sup> See Unesco, *Report of the Director-General for 1955*, "The Social Sciences and Problems of Social Development," pp. 88-92 (Paris, 1956); Margaret Mead, ed., "Cultural Patterns and Technological Change" (Paris: Unesco, 1953); Luther Evans, "The Human Side of Progress," *Unesco Courier*, VIII, April, 1956), pp. 12-14.

help people understand their immediate problems and provide them with the attitudes and skills needed for solving them through their own efforts. In such programs, sooner or later the ability to read and write is bound to be essential.

Latest available figures by Unesco and published in the "World Survey of Education" (2nd ed., 1955) indicate that among the 109 countries and territories for which data are given, 46 show an illiteracy rate of 50 % or more. Another 45 have an indicated illiteracy rate of at least 10% but less than 50%. In the remaining 17 countries and territories, the illiteracy rate shown is less than 10%. These data indicate that in many areas of the world the majority of the population is illiterate, a reasonable estimate being that half the world's people still cannot read or write.

Statistics on illiteracy are obtained mainly from national population censuses. However, such data are not available from many areas of the world. Further, the available data reflect considerable differences in the existing national criteria of literacy. Both quantitative and qualitative studies of illiteracy and of measures taken against it are badly needed. Without these, the basis for large-scale action does not exist. Unesco is therefore engaged in the systematic collection and analysis of information on the subject. The Unesco monograph, "The Progress of Literacy in Various Countries" (Paris, 1953), represents a step in this direction. This consists in the main of 26 case studies dealing with countries which have published results on the literacy question in three or more censuses since 1900. It is planned to extend this study to other countries and territories as the results of the censuses taken around 1950 become more generally available. Thus a world-wide statistical survey of illiteracy may be possible with the data continuously collected by Unesco from its Member States and other countries. Studies of this kind give opportunity for the standardization of terms and of statistical methods,<sup>5</sup> permit a clearer and more widely intelligible statement of the problems involved, and stimulate action through comparative experience.

A further step in the study of methods of measurement has been taken by Unesco, for whom Dr. Irving S. Lorge of Columbia University prepared in 1955 a preliminary report on the methodology of literacy testing. His report, based on recorded experiences of literacy testing in many countries, will be published later in 1956.

A key question involved in the eradication of illiteracy concerns the choice of methods to be used for teaching reading and writing. In

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<sup>5</sup> United Nations: Statistical Office. "Handbook of Population Census Methods" (Studies in Methods, Series F., No. 5), New York, 1954.

1952, Unesco engaged Dr. William Scott Gray of the University of Chicago, to undertake an international, comparative study of methods of teaching reading and writing in the mother tongue to children and adults. A draft edition of the study was issued by Unesco in 1953. The final report of this study is being published by Unesco in English, French, and Spanish.<sup>6</sup> An interesting sequel to this study is that the University of Chicago has undertaken to strengthen the international character of its collection of documentation on literacy teaching and to develop its School of Reading as an international training center. Further, during 1956 Unesco is appointing two experts to work in Latin America and the Arab States of the Middle East for the purpose of implementing in field programs the findings of this report. They will be attached to the Latin-American Regional Fundamental Education Centre (CREFAL), Patzcuaro, Mexico, and the Arab States Fundamental Education Centre (ASFEC), Sirs-el-Layyan, Egypt. They may assist in the development of better teaching methods, primers, readers' charts, etc.) the preparation of teachers' manuals and guides, the training of teachers, and the improvement of current teaching methods. During 1956 it is also foreseen that Unesco will assist authorities in India to develop guides for the preparation of textbooks used in schools for reading and writing programs.

Meanwhile, during 1955, the UNESCO Secretariat carried out, through commissioned studies, surveys, and questionnaires, an investigation into the current efforts being made for the provision of suitable reading materials to follow literacy campaigns. During 1956, the Unesco Secretariat proposes to give assistance to agencies producing such literature in the area of Southeast Asia through provision of training fellowships, consultant services, and the holding of training seminars. The results of these studies and activities will eventually be made available in published form to educators.

*The Problem of Establishing Free and Compulsory Education—* The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted unanimously by the United Nations General Assembly, December 10, 1948, states in Article 26:

"Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit."

<sup>6</sup> William S. Gray, "Methods of Teaching Reading and Writing: An International Survey," (Paris: Unesco, 1956). (Monographs on Fundamental Education, No. X); published also in the U.S.A. jointly by Unesco and the Scott, Foresman Co., Chicago, 1956.



This is the educational profession of faith of the world today. The fact is, however, that these goals have been appreciably realized in only a few of the more highly industrialized countries. Unesco estimates, on the basis of data covering 109 countries and territories, that at least half the world's children of school age (5-14 years inclusive) were not receiving any kind of school education in the year 1952,<sup>7</sup> and thus are growing up to become adult illiterates. Unesco has attacked this problem on a double front.

For adult illiterates and for children who have no schools to go to, it has advocated and, wherever possible, assisted governments in various ways to provide a program of fundamental education which attempts to supply a minimum of general training and practical education to eliminate illiteracy and raise the standard of living. This movement has met with positive response both in sovereign states and in the non-self-governing territories.

However, fundamental education is at best a remedial measure and not an ultimate solution to the problem of education for all. So long as there are millions of children for whom no schooling is provided, the problem of adult illiteracy will exist. The basic solution, therefore, lies in long-term planning for the purpose of putting every child of school age in school. It is this realization that has caused Unesco to embark on world-wide promotion of the progressive application of free and compulsory education. The two programs of fundamental education and of compulsory education thus complement and reinforce each other.

Unesco began its program in favor of free and compulsory education at the XIVth International Conference on Public Education held at Geneva in July, 1951, in collaboration with the International Bureau of Education. This conference, attended by 93 delegates from 49 countries, adopted a recommendation (No. 32) on "Compulsory Education and its Prolongation," embodying the main principles upon which the extension of free and compulsory schooling can be undertaken:<sup>8</sup> planning and financing compulsory education programs with fiscal and other authorities of the State, taking into account the economic, social, geographical, linguistic, and geographical factors; making sure the duration of compulsory education should be such as to enable the child to play his full part in the life of the community; and advocating supplementary services that will facilitate the enforcement of compulsory education, such as free school transport, meals, books and

<sup>7</sup> UNESCO, "World Survey of Education," 2nd ed., (Paris, 1955), pp. 16-17.

<sup>8</sup> UNESCO-IBE, "XIVth International Conference on Public Education," (Paris, 1951).

medical care. Other recommendations deal with staffing problems, school buildings, and the education of handicapped children.

Each year since 1951, the annual sessions of the International Conference on Public Education have been devoted to further study and discussion of particular problems of compulsory education, including the access of women to education (1952), the training and status of primary school teachers (1953) and secondary school teachers (1954), the financing of education (1955), and the inspection and supervision of schools (1956). During the same period, Unesco has sponsored a series of more detailed planning and study conferences at the regional level. Such regional conferences have been held for the countries of South Asia and the Pacific (Bombay, 1952), for the Arab States (Cairo, 1954), and for Latin America (Lima, 1956).

These international and regional conferences are supported and followed up by a carefully planned program of studies, documentation services, educational missions, and fellowship grants. General studies are based on the "World Survey of Education," already cited. This indispensable reference book serves both as an introduction to the educational systems of particular countries and as the basis for securing a regional or world-wide view of the present status of education. The third edition of the survey, to be issued in 1957, will deal in detail with the status of primary education, including provisions for compulsory education, the curriculum, teacher training, and a statistical view of progress over the past twenty years.

Unesco has further published an extensive series of monographs under the general title, *Studies in Compulsory Education*. This series, which to date comprises 16 volumes, includes 12 volumes which are detailed studies of compulsory education in particular countries, two volumes which are the reports respectively of the regional conferences held for the South Asian countries and the Arab States, and two comparative studies of general problems: "Raising the School-Leaving Age," by I. L. Kandel, and "Child Labour in Relation to Compulsory Education," prepared by the International Labour Organization.

Other Unesco publications of particular interest to comparative education are the series entitled *Problems in Education*, the quarterly *Fundamental and Adult Education Bulletin* and the monthly *Education Abstracts*.

Unesco also maintains an extensive and well-organized international collection of documentation on educational problems in the Education Clearing House at Unesco Headquarters in Paris. Its resources are constantly drawn upon to provide information and materials to those engaged in executing Unesco's program, whether at headquarters or in the field. Visiting educators are also serviced and

made welcome. Experts going out on Unesco education missions (56 in 1955) are briefed and then provided with needed documents in the field. In some cases, more intensive servicing is given. For example, as a follow-up of the regional conferences on compulsory education held in 1952 and 1954, the Education Clearing House collected some fifty important documents on the primary school curriculum issued in various countries around the world, prepared a guide document based on an analytical study of these sources, and distributed copies of the collection to Ministries of Education in South Asia and the Arab States.

Further, Unesco has been sending out to Member States, at their request, a number of missions and experts on problems relating to the application of compulsory education and allied subjects, both under its regular program and under the United Nations Expanded Program of Technical Assistance.<sup>9</sup>

Free and compulsory education is for many countries and territories a somewhat distant goal. Nevertheless, as Unesco has stated, if the ideal of education for all is to be realized, certain concepts have to be accepted and certain steps taken. Among these the following may be cited: the acceptance of the principle of education for all and of free and compulsory education as a goal to be realized at some near or distant future; a detailed and adequate study of the demographic, social, economic, racial, linguistic and other conditions which might hinder or assist in the development of education for all; on the basis of the study, the development of short-term and long-term plans for the gradual extension of primary education at a pace that will keep ahead of the birth rate and ultimately lead to education for all; and the co-ordination of plans for educational development with other plans for social and economic development.<sup>10</sup>

It is clear that such planning, and the working out of practical solutions in each country to such widely-found problems as the optimum duration of compulsory education, the language of instruction, suitable curricula, and programs of teacher training will depend to a considerable extent upon the findings of comparative education and their imaginative application in practice.

*Women's Education*—The problem of educational opportunities for women is of universal interest. It forms part of the agenda of the

<sup>9</sup> With the consent of the country concerned, Unesco has published the Reports of Missions to Afghanistan, Burma, Korea, Libya, the Philippines, and Thailand, in the series entitled *UNESCO Educational Missions* (Paris, 1950 to date).

<sup>10</sup> See United Nations. "Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories," 1954.

United Nations Economic and Social Council's Commission on the Status of Women, and was one of the major topics discussed at the XVth International Conference on Public Education held in 1952.<sup>11</sup> Unesco has further devoted two comparative studies to the question in the *Problems in Education* series.<sup>12</sup>

However, for a practical approach to its solution, it must be considered as an integral part both of the general problem of the extension of educational opportunities for all and of the further problem of the status of women, including the promotion of women's rights in the political, civil, economic, and social fields, as well as in education. The problem requires, therefore, direct and indirect action in various domains and not only in the field of education.

Indirect action in the social field may be exercised to a certain degree through legislation aimed at the protection of women and at the improvement of their status. An important example of such a measure is the Convention on the Political Rights of Women, the first international legal instrument on women's rights. It was drafted by the United Nations Economic and Social Council's Commission on the Status of Women and adopted by the General Assembly at its seventh session, December 20, 1952. Under the Convention, women will be entitled to vote, to be elected to hold public office and exercise public functions on equal terms with men. Forty countries had signed and 22 had ratified or acceded to this Convention by January 1, 1956. Other measures—economic, administrative or social—may influence favorably the education of girls by creating or expanding employment opportunities for women, by encouraging the organization and development of women's associations, and by appointing qualified women to public office.

In the educational field, the findings of comparative education suggest examples of measures which have been taken with good effect in countries where women's education has made marked progress: the inclusion of girls in any schemes of compulsory primary education; where conditions permit, an increase of co-educational schools, with appropriate differentiation of curricula to meet the needs of girls; greater emphasis on the training of women teachers in areas where

<sup>11</sup> Unesco-IBE. XVth Conference on Public Education, "Proceedings and Recommendations," (Paris, 1952); and International Bureau of Education, "Access of Women to Education."

<sup>12</sup> Unesco, "Women and Education: Chile, India, and Yugoslavia," by Amanda Labarca, K. L. Joshi, *et al.* (Paris, 1953). A second study on educational opportunities for women in Japan, Mexico, and Pakistan will be issued in 1956, arising out of the joint education-social science study conducted in 1954.

they are now lacking; equal salaries for teachers of both sexes; the employment of married women teachers; the development of vocational training in fields suited to women; and the organization or extension of educational opportunities for adult women. Unesco publications, conferences and educational missions have advocated the application of various of these measures in the light of the particular situation under consideration.

*Conclusion*—Last year, in addressing this Conference, Dr. Robert King Hall stated that, although there is not yet general agreement among its practitioners as to what constitutes the proper scope and methodology of comparative education as a discipline, his own view is that "the solution of social problems in some way involving the educational process is the basic objective of comparative education."<sup>13</sup> Certainly it is this instrumental view of comparative education which is reflected in the action and study programs of the United Nations and Unesco. This view is articulated clearly in Chapter II of Unesco's "World Survey of Education," which, in the course of discussing certain underlying problems awaiting further study at the national and international levels, states as follows:

The link between comparative education and international action in education is very close. On the one hand comparative educationists are individually interested in affairs beyond their national borders and collectively interested in having comparable material available for study . . . On the other hand, the programs of such (international) organizations depend to a considerable extent on the findings of comparative education. . . Long-range programs can only be fixed if agreement is reached on the most urgent international problems in education and the most effective methods of coping with them. Discussion and decision alike need to be based on a body of evidence provided by the study of comparative education.<sup>14</sup>

Dorothy G. Collings is Educational Liaison Officer, Department of Public Information, United Nations.

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<sup>13</sup> Robert King Hall, "The Improvement of the Teaching of Comparative Education," in William W. Brickman, ed., "The Teaching of Comparative Education," (New York: School of Education, New York University, 1955), pp. 8 ff.

<sup>14</sup> Unesco, "World Survey of Education," *op. cit.*, p. 38.



## THE PRACTICAL VALUE OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION FOR THE INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Lily von Klemperer

Professor Brickman referred this mornnig to "the practice which goes on constantly." This phrase so aptly characterizes the work we are doing in the Institute of International Education's Information and Counseling Division. The fact that we answered 42,000 letters of inquiry last year, not to mention thousands of personal interviews and consultations over the telephone, will give some idea of the scope of our activities, and reflects the vast interest of students and professors to study in countries other than their own.

The most acceptable definition, to me, of comparative education is in the introduction to Unesco's "World Handbook of Educational Organizations and Statistics" (1951) Comparative education is a relatively recent branch of the science of education which attempts to study educational conditions in different countries in the light of the historical evolution of educational theories and practices, and of the social, cultural, and economic development of those countries, so that increased understanding of those conditions and developments may stimulate and contribute to the general improvement of education in all countries. Moreover, the purely descriptive approach applied to educational systems of foreign countries, though often going under the name of comparative education, is obviously but a component part of the study of comparative education.

The latter statement is a very acceptable definition of the practical application of comparative education, as far as the work of the many organizations in the field of international exchange is concerned.

Dr. Kandel, in an article entitled "Problems of Comparative Education," (*International Review of Education*, II, No. 1, 1956), says that it is easy enough to present the legal basis of an educational system, of its organization, of the different types of schools and their curricula, but that it is far more difficult to discover the reasons for its peculiar characteristics. To him, the value of comparative education rests on the ability to analyze and compare educational systems and the factors that determine and shape them.

In the same article, Dr. Kandel states that comparative education cannot aim to discover the basis of a universal system of education, and that it should not be confused with international education which seeks to promote a common aim—good will, friendship, brotherhood, and peace—among the peoples of the world. He admits that the study

of comparative education may contribute towards this aim, but that comparative education is not itself international education.

Although I fully agree with Dr. Kandel, I would be inclined (and I think I speak for all who administer international exchange programs) to emphasize the role of comparative education in relation to international education somewhat more strongly. If we are to carry out the objectives of international exchange, the work all in the comparative field is of great importance to us. Knowledge of the cultural pattern, the sociological and anthropological as well as the economic background, coupled with factual information on the educational setup of a given country, is imperative for any effective student placement. We must know how far we should go in training the West African student, and at what point to send him back to his home country. If we give him more than he can use back home, we may create a frustrated person who may become a potential enemy of the United States, thus defeating the whole purpose of the program. Knowledge of the educational system alone is not enough; the needs of the country and its existing resources must be investigated carefully.

Professor Brickman asked me to suggest the type of help comparative education could give to international education, which I shall be glad to do. First of all, there is a great need for standardized terminology. Dr. Kandel points to the complete absence of standardized terminology. Dr. Hans, too, has recognized the need for a glossary of educational terms, stating that the first need in an international exchange is the proper use of terms and clear definition of underlying ideas. This is the age of statistics, but how reliable can international statistics be, as long as we are not agreed on the basic terminology? The need for such a glossary has been felt for many years. As a matter of fact the International Federation of University Women in 1939 published the "International Glossary of Academic Terms" which was designed to begin the process of making the universities of Europe and America and other parties of the world mutually intelligible by explaining—not translation, for direct translation is not possible—their respective official titles and technical terms." This brief statement in itself points up some of the great difficulties which have to be faced. "Translating" is one of the major pitfalls in such an enterprise. The American student who, when applying to a French university, describes his educational background by stating that he has obtained his "baccalaureat," and the French student who explains to the American university that he holds a B.A. degree, misinterprets the facts. To translate "high school" by "Hochschule" is equally disastrous. This book contains much factual infor-

mation, and, although I do not consider it the answer to the problem, it is a step in the right direction.

The *Rivista de Legislazione Scolastica Comparata*, in Rome, has just published the first portion of what is to become a "Diccionario di Terminologia Scolastica Comparata." There is no way of gauging how extensive a work this will be, but since the publisher sends out an appeal for constructive criticism, we can hope that there will be widest cooperation of all potential users.

Here I find myself asking for a new publication, namely for a glossary of terms. This is unusual since, actually, I am quite disturbed by the fact that too much is being written at this point. Whereas, in the past, there were only one or two major international university reference works, there are now five or six. If you do not find what you are looking for in one book, you have to look through all of them to satisfy yourself that you have exhausted every possible source. There are hundreds of studies: for example, I have always thought that Norwegian education was adequately covered by existing reference material. Yesterday a new publication arrived by mail—276 pages on the "Organization and Administration of the Educational System of Norway." Despite the seeming abundance of a certain type of reference literature, the existing material does not cover all needs. Therefore, let us look for a moment at the consumer.

Organizations—private and governmental—working in international education, cannot expect to hire staff trained in the subject matter. The harassed admissions officer of a U. S. college or university, who has to pass on hundreds of applications from foreign students, cannot be asked to do extensive reading in order to determine the educational background of the applicants. He needs basic facts which can be gleaned easily. Many colleges and universities avail themselves of the evaluation services performed by the Office of Education; others use Martena T. Sassnett's "Educational Systems of the World" (1952). However, a definite need for specifically planned material has been felt for a long time and has now resulted in the establishment of the Council for Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials. This Council has encouraged some thirty colleges and universities to prepare a description of education, including higher education in other countries, and to submit recommendations regarding equivalence of credit. It is planned that the American Council of Education will publish these profiles in loose-leaf form.

It is this type of information which, if carefully and cooperatively planned, would fill a noticeable gap and be a valuable contribution by comparative education to international education.

I also want to add that there is much comparative education can

learn from our experience. Organizations working in the field of international education have accumulated a wealth of information which could lend itself as a basis for further research. Close cooperation would be beneficial to all concerned.

Inspired by the subject matter discussed today, I have omitted to tell you much about the work the Institute of International Education is doing, but I assume that all of you are to some extent familiar with our activities. The Institute of International Education is a non-profit organization, which administers exchange of persons programs, both governmental and private, between the United States and eighty countries. Approximately 4,000 students, teachers, technicians and specialists study in a country other than their own each year through our programs.

Lily von Klemperer is head, Information and Counseling Division Institute on International Education.

**Professor George Z. F. Bereday presented a paper entitled "Soviet Scientific Potential: An Example of Problem Analysis in Comparative Education" at the Third Annual Conference on Comparative Education, School of Education, New York University, on April 27, 1956. This paper is to be published in SOCIAL PROBLEMS, Jan. 1957.**

## **PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION IN THE INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION ADMINISTRATION**

**Kenneth C. Ray**

Some understanding of the basic structure of the educational systems of other countries and of their differing educational philosophies is of great value to the effective operation of ICA technical assistance programs overseas. Many of the underdeveloped countries have emerged in relatively recent times from the status of colonies, protectorates, or mandates of one of the European powers. Such European administration, whether of long or short duration, has usually involved the imposition of an educational pattern based on that of the administering authority.

The French mandate in Lebanon entailed the establishment there of a system of education completely French in pattern and philosophy. Even today, French cultural influence is an important factor. American technicians need to be aware of the nature of French educational traditions, so that they can be adequately prepared to help the Lebanese adapt their educational system to the needs of modern Lebanon. Technical assistance is a delicate task at best, and often frustrating, but, unless technicians have a good understanding of why existing institutions are the way they are, the difficulties are intensified.

Similarly, the French pattern persists in areas like Cambodia, Laos, and Vietnam, and will be an important factor affecting any future programs of technical assistance in Tunis or Morocco as they also emerge into independent nationhood and attempt to develop their own educational systems.

In countries formerly under United Kingdom control, such as India, Pakistan, Jordan, or Egypt, there are likewise strong remnants of British educational patterns. Considerable numbers of American educators, particularly under university-to-university contracts, are assisting institutions in these countries to rethink their educational problems in the light of the positions of those countries in the second half of the twentieth century. It is clearly necessary for American educators to have a good understanding of education in Great Britain, including its historic development, in addition to the development of education patterns in independent countries presently and formerly part of the British Commonwealth, or otherwise strongly influenced by the British pattern.

Perhaps the best example of comparative education at the university level in the ICA program is that of the inter-university contracts



in India and Pakistan. In India, the universities of Illinois, Wisconsin, Ohio State, Tennessee, Kansas State Agricultural and the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute have all undertaken responsibilities for technical assistance, stressing agricultural and engineering, but with some emphasis on the home economics side of teacher training. Similarly, ICA is sponsoring contracts involving five Pakistani universities on the one hand and six American institutions (State College of Washington, Texas A. & M., Pennsylvania, Colorado A. & M., Indiana, and New Mexico A. & M.) to assist in a general rethinking of curricula and educational problems.

This *does not* mean an attempt to substitute an American for a British way of doing things. Pakistan differs so much from the United States in economy, background, and culture that it would be harmful to attempt such substitution. It is, therefore, the aim of approximately 65 university contract technicians in Pakistan to learn from their Pakistani counterparts, members of the staffs of the local universities, what the situation is in Pakistan, what has been done in the past and why, and then to help their Pakistani colleagues devise curriculum methods and teaching materials which more adequately fill the needs of Pakistan than would the transplantation of any system from any other country.

In a sense, this merely means taking the land grant college idea and applying it in Pakistan. No two of our land grant colleges are exactly alike although they all specialize in agriculture and engineering. However, each one works out a curriculum suited to the economy and education needs of that particular state. It is hoped that the colleges participating in this type of program will do the same in cooperation with their host institutions in Pakistan, India, Liberia, Turkey, and the more than 30 other countries where such contracts are now operating. We warn the college technicians before they go out to be very careful about giving advice for the first or three months. Only after they have a good grasp of what their counterpart has to teach them are they in a position to give advice which is really sound. We have been particularly gratified by reports from East Pakistan that the Texas A. & M. engineers and business administration specialists have succeeded in setting up closer working relationships between Dacca University and the business firms and the engineering departments of the Government than had previously existed. This, again, is the use of an American idea, but its end result is to apply the ideas of Pakistan to the solution of the problems of Pakistan.

Professors Mildred Fairchild and Kenneth Wann of Teachers College, Columbia University, who recently returned from Afghanistan, have given some indication of the problem posed by foreign

educational influence in an article for the current issue of the *Teachers College Record*.

We knew something of the influence of European educational ideas on Afghan schools before we left the United States, but it was greater than we had expected. The emphasis upon a purely academic education with content chosen from European textbooks, and the elimination of many students by a system of semi-annual oral and written examinations beginning in the first grade had set education apart from the lives of the people and the needs of the country. It was obvious to the consultant group that the Afghan culture had not been the determining factor in the development of the education we saw in operation. This fact had become apparent to Afghan leaders and they were anxious to bring about changes.

This need to adapt educational practices and materials to the actual needs and special culture patterns of each country is the most challenging aspect of my topic. Traditionally, comparative education, though variously defined, has been focused primarily on the comparative description of the school systems, pedagogical methods, and curriculum patterns of a few major countries. Often these are limited to the same so-called Great Powers whose governmental structures are usually studied in sophomore Comparative Government courses: Great Britain, France, Germany, and the United States, with occasional inclusion of Japan, Russia, or Italy.

Now it is true that, through colonial control and/or cultural influence, the educational systems of the Great Powers have had a profound effect, far beyond the borders of those countries themselves—not excepting the influence of the United States on the educational pattern of the Philippines during the period of American administration. Furthermore, studies of comparative education, even when limited to a few major countries, may produce evaluations and suggestions as to successful ideas and practices, and possibly lead to their adoption by other nations. Thus, certain educational ideas gain an almost worldwide currency—sometimes without adequate consideration of their adaptability to local conditions.

That is why I want to stress the importance and necessity of developing, through a deeper concept of comparative education, the kind of insight which will enable our educators really to understand the educational needs of an individual country, and be able to adapt sound educational principles to fit these particular needs.

For example, the members of the Teachers College team in Afghanistan found that they could work most successfully if they began by finding the ideas already in the minds of the Afghan people,

which could be utilized as guideposts to a culturally sound educational pattern for that country. This meant, as Drs. Fairchild and Wann point out, "using whatever skills we possessed to help people identify and clarify their own goals and then to do better those things they wanted and needed to do. This was an important concept for us and required using in an unusual way the knowledge and skills we had acquired in our work in American education."

Such an approach requires a continuous and deepening awareness of the cultural implications of proposed educational reforms, and precludes any attempt to transpose an educational pattern or impose our standards. It requires insight as well as knowledge, a willingness to learn as well as to teach, and an appreciation of cultural values even when they differ greatly from our own. Not every scholar, even among those few truly expert in the field of comparative education, possess such qualities. But if we set our sights thus high, some few may be inspired to lead the way to a new and far more significant interpretation of comparative education.

Professor Robert King Hall, in his brilliant address at the Second Annual Conference on Comparative Education here a year ago, pointed out the importance of a qualitative analysis rather than a merely descriptive conception of comparative education. He suggested, that the subject be broadened so that it might perhaps better be described by the title of "Educational Statesmanship." Education, to Dr. Hall, "is a social phenomenon involving certain cultural institutions, which is quite impossible to separate from the society in which it exists. The study of comparative education involves the study of the interaction between the educational process—with its methods, personnel, and institutions—and the society. Each acts upon and modifies the other." He would stress "intensive study of the interaction between education and its host society," and would, therefore, include such social factors as power groups, political ideologies, administrative organization, economic problems, and all pertinent aspects of the culture—traditions, religion, class structure, etc.

This does not mean that we should minimize the importance of sound factual data about the educational systems of the major countries, nor the value of broad analytical comparisons of their educational philosophies. Indeed, as I have pointed out, some accurate understanding of prevalent educational patterns, ideals, and practices is essential if we are to make an effective contribution to the improvement of education in the underdeveloped (or "newly developing") countries through technical assistance in education.

There are certain problems common to all nations as they attempt to face their educational responsibilities in the world of today. Prob-

ably first among these common problems confronting the most highly developed countries as seriously as those just emerging into nationhood is the universal shortage of adequate classroom space and of well-trained teachers. A rising birthrate, plus an attempt to raise the school-leaving age in the more advanced countries and to implement the provisions for compulsory education in the less developed areas, have combined to produce a continuously expanding need for more teachers and more schools throughout the world. Then there are a whole series of common problems growing out of the attempt to expand the scope, variety, and availability of secondary education (whether free or on a tuition basis), and the use of tests of some sort at age 11 or 14 to determine the course of further education. Lastly, there is a common concern with new methods and content, in an effort to improve the curriculum.

The chief of our ICA education team in Egypt made a very favorable impression on his Egyptian colleagues at a meeting of the staff of the Egyptian American Joint Committee for Education last December when he analyzed the issues discussed in the entire program of the recent White House Conference on Education, stressing in each instance the similarity of the problems faced by the two countries. The psychological effectiveness of treating the grave educational needs of Egypt in this way, as being common difficulties which we in the United States face as well, can scarcely be overestimated. Technical cooperation is always a delicate and complex task, requiring great skill to avoid any implication of superiority—an implication which would be embarrassing for a proud people to accept. So whenever we can stress the universality of some of the basic and most troubling problems, it will help to pave the way for mutual understanding and a cooperative approach to the meeting of the needs of the countries seeking our advice.

Dr. Matta Akrawi, distinguished UNESCO official and former dean of the Higher Teachers College and director of higher education for his native Iraq, delivered a provocative address last November, at the inauguration of President Hollis L. Caswell, on "The Challenge of a Divided World to American Education." American educators and educators at large, he said, must begin to think of educational problems not only on a national but also on a world scale:

It is only as a common core of ideas, principles, moral values, and ways of life emerges out of the tremendous and increasingly intimate contact of men, groups, races, religions, and nations that the foundations of a peaceful world and of future prosperity will be laid.

An educator going abroad in an advisory capacity is likely to

fall back upon the educational patterns with which he is familiar. His recommendations and plans look auspiciously like those current in his own country . . . For this reason more attention should be paid to the study of foreign educational systems and their cultural and social backgrounds. Comparative education should no longer remain a luxury in American schools of education. It should go hand in hand with the 'area studies' which have arisen in American universities. Younger American educators should get foreign experience as part of their training and their career, preferably in more than one country or region. In this way, the comparative approach to the problems of education will be forced upon their attention. They will be obliged to look deeper into the factors that shape educational systems, and will appreciate better the impact of their recommendations upon the educational system they serve at home or abroad.

A basic understanding of the teachings of comparative education, interpreted in its broadest sense, is thus an essential element in really effective implementation of any international program of educational cooperation. Without such an understanding, American technicians, no matter how expert in their respective fields of specialization, may find themselves frustrated by unexpected resistance to suggestions that unwittingly violate accustomed patterns or the accepted educational philosophy of the area. It is true that part of the task of technical cooperation may be to persuade the countries assisted to alter to some extent their established practices, or accept some modifications of their traditional educational philosophy. But such changes can be brought about only by persuasive presentation and demonstration of the merits of the proposals, not by dogmatic insistence that our way is right, the implication that their way is wrong, or utter disregard of national traditions. The deeper the understanding of other educational systems our educators possess, the better they will be prepared to work with their counterparts to help them develop educational programs tailored to meet the needs of their own people. That is the objective of the education activities of the International Cooperation Administration. It is an objective more easily attainable through wider study and deeper comprehension of the whole broad field of comparative education.

Kenneth C. Ray is Chief, Education Division, International Cooperation Administration.



**DISSERTATIONS ON FOREIGN EDUCATION ACCEPTED BY  
AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES**

**Walter Crosby Eells**

Three types of educational activity have stimulated an increasing interest on my part in education in foreign countries: my work for two years (1945-47) as chief, Foreign Education Division, Veterans Administration in Washington, during which I studied and recommended for approval for the education of veterans under the GI Bill of Rights over a thousand educational institutions in 70 foreign countries; my four years' service (1947-51) as adviser on higher education, SCAP, Tokyo, Japan; and two years of travel (1951-53) after reaching retirement age in Japan, spent in visiting 40 countries of Asia, Africa, Australia, and Pacific islands to study the impact of communism on education in those vital areas, resulting in the publication in 1954 by the American Council on Education of my book, "Communism in Education in Asia, Africa, and the Far Pacific." Add to these experiences the fact that last year I was asked by the American Council of Education to undertake a revision and extension of the tables of doctorates conferred by American universities for publication in the seventh edition of "American Universities and Colleges" (just published this month), and you will see some of the factors which have combined to lead me to a special interest in doctoral dissertations relating to education in countries outside the United States. As far as I know, no comprehensive study of this subject has been undertaken before, although there have been limited studies covering particular countries, or topics, or periods.

I am sure this audience will accept as axiomatic the statements that international understanding and goodwill are needed now in this troubled world as perhaps never before; that education is basic to the cultural development and successful political evolution of any country; that international exchange of information regarding educational problems and developments is increasingly important; and that the doctor's degree represents the highest level of formal education and basic scholarly research at that level. I suspected that considerable fundamental research at the doctoral level concerning problems of education in foreign countries had been done in the United States, but I was sure that on one knew how much, or when, or where.

If such research could throw any light on present-day problems

of cultural development in other countries and aid working scholars in avoiding unnecessary duplication and in profiting by previous work in their special fields of interest, it needed to be done and information concerning it made available in convenient form. I decided, therefore, to undertake to locate and formulate at least brief information concerning all doctoral dissertations that I could find that dealt in any significant way with education or educators in foreign countries.

Before I had gone far in my search, I found that I would have to define more carefully the meaning of the term "foreign country." Should I include the Philippines, for a half-century under American rule, but independent since 1946? Numerous dissertations regarding Philippine education were written prior to 1946 as well as since that date. Should I include Puerto Rico, also for a half century under American rule, but since 1952 a "free commonwealth associated with the United States"? Dissertations on Puerto Rican education have been produced both before and after 1952. Should I include a "History of Education in New Mexico," which contained important information on education in that territory when it was an integral part of Mexico, prior to 1846? My answers to all of these questions was "yes," not so much on technical political grounds, which certainly might be debatable, but on the practical grounds that the educational practices and problems of these areas were more closely related to those of their neighboring countries which, without question, were "foreign" than they were to those of the United States. My general guiding principle in these and other cases of doubt was to include the dissertation, on the theory that possible users of my lists could easily ignore them, if desired, but that they would not be able to consider them at all if they were not included in such lists.

My studies for the American Council of Education, mentioned above, showed that more than 131,000 doctoral dissertations have been written in the United States in the past 95 years since the first three were completed at Yale University in 1861. More than 97% of these have been produced in the twentieth century. Of this number more than 15,000 have been written in the professional field of education. Almost a tenth of those in the field of education have been concerned with education in foreign countries.

A summary of my findings, which included dissertations written in 1954 but not those in 1955, was published by the United States Office of Education in *Higher Education* (12: 119-22, October, 1955) under the title, "American Doctoral Dissertations on Foreign Educa-

tion." This article reported 1059 doctoral dissertations, distributed by continents as follows:

	Number	Percent
General .....	52	4.9
Asia .....	391	37.0
Europe .....	353	33.3
North America .....	177	16.7
Africa .....	54	5.1
South America .....	19	1.8
Australasia .....	13	1.2
	<hr/> 1059	<hr/> 100.0

I was somewhat surprised to find such a large proportion, almost two-fifths of the total number, devoted to the Asiatic countries, more even than for Europe, which comprised one-third of the total number. I was even more surprised to find less than 2% concerned with education among our South American neighbors. Perhaps this unexpected dearth of scholarly materials regarding education in South America will suggest a fertile field for educational research to professors in graduate schools advising students on fruitful topics for dissertations. Data furnished by the Institute of International Education indicate that more than 11% of the 34,000 foreign students studying in the United States in 1954-55 were from South America.

Since my article, lists of dissertations written in 1955 have become available, among which are about 75 dealing with foreign education, and I have found 60 or 70 more for earlier years by various methods. Thus, I now have cards for some 1200 doctoral dissertations in this important field.

A total of 91 foreign countries, colonies, or other political units are represented in my data. The dozen countries with the largest number of dissertations reported for them, all with 25 or more dissertations each, are the following:

China .....	131	France .....	40
Canada .....	113	Italy .....	33
India .....	79	Japan .....	33
Germany .....	77	Mexico .....	30
Great Britain .....	75	Egypt .....	25
Philippines .....	45	Puerto Rico .....	25

All of the continents except South America are represented in this list.

Although these dissertations have been accepted at 69 different American institutions of higher education, only 22 have conferred ten or more doctorates each for dissertations in the field of foreign edu-

cation. These 22 institutions are responsible for more than six-sevenths of the total number. Three institutions—Columbia University with 349, New York University with 144, and the University of Chicago with 48—are credited with more than half of the entire number.

The first doctoral dissertation on education or an educator in a foreign country appears to have been accepted at Johns Hopkins University in 1884. Interestingly enough, it was written by John Dewey on "The Psychology of Kant." Following is a classification of these dissertations by decades in which they were accepted:

Period	Number	Percent
1884-1899 .....	13	1.2
1900-1909 .....	21	2.0
1910-1919 .....	59	5.6
1920-1929 .....	116	11.0
1930-1939 .....	265	25.0
1940-1949 .....	282	26.6
1950-1954 .....	303	28.6
	<hr/> 1059	<hr/> 100.0

The steady increase in number of dissertations with each succeeding decade is noteworthy. The number in the latest *five-year* period is greater than for any previous *ten-year period*. If the 75 new ones for 1955 be added, almost one-third of the total production has occurred in the six years of the 1950's.

It is impossible to tell from the data available the proportion of dissertations which are by foreign students studying in the United States and which by American students. In the case of Asia and Africa, however, the nationality of the authors can be judged with considerable reliability from their non-English type names. By this method it appears that almost two-thirds of the dissertations dealing with Asian and African education are the work of authors who are natives of countries of those two continents. Undoubtedly, a much smaller proportion of dissertations dealing with education in European and American countries is the work of nationals of those countries.

About 200 of the dissertations, almost one-fifth of the entire number, are by women. This may be compared with the fact that in the United States in the past 30 years only 11% of the total number of doctoral dissertations have been written by women. A fairer comparison, however, is in the field of *education*. In the seven years from 1948 to 1954 inclusive, almost one-fifth of the total doctoral dissertations have been the work of women. (Men, 5787; women, 1191).

Such facts, drawn mainly from my article in *Higher Education*, may be of some general interest, but they are not particularly helpful to an individual professor or to an advanced student who may be interested primarily in a particular country or in a special phase of education. His needs would be better served if at least the following minimum information were available concerning each dissertation: (1) Full name of author, with birth and death years if possible; (2) title of dissertation, with number of pages if possible; (3) institution at which the dissertation was accepted; and (4) date of its acceptance. Also very helpful, but more difficult to secure, are publication data: whether the dissertation has been published in full, in part, by microfilm, or as an abstract only—with full details of dates, publishers, places, form of publication, pagination, etc. Still more valuable would be a presentation that included extensive abstracts of the dissertations involved. Most of the reference sources available give only the first four items mentioned—author, title (without pagination), institution, and date. Much additional effort is required to secure even part of the other information suggested.

I have prepared a group of articles and materials for monographs covering particular countries, or particular phases of education, derived from the basic list described above. A dozen or more of these have been published. Others are in process of publication or are now under consideration. The following have appeared covering education in a particular country:

"American Doctoral Dissertations on Education in Canada." *University of Toronto Quarterly*, 25: 249-58, Jan., 1956. (Data on 111 dissertations).

"Amerikanische Doktor-Dissertationen über Erziehung in Deutschland." *Bildung und Erziehung* (Frankfurt, Germany), 9: 425-34, July, 1955. (Data, in English and German, on 87 dissertations).

"American Doctoral Dissertations on Education in Australia." In *Educational Research Being Undertaken in Australia*, 1955, Appendix, pp. 55-56. Commonwealth Office of Education, Sydney, New South Wales. (Data on 13 dissertations).

"American Doctoral Dissertations on Education in the Philippines." *The Philippine Educator*, 10: 51-54, Nov. 1955. (Data on 42 dissertations).

"American Essays on Japan Increasing." *Nippon Times*, (Tokyo, Japan), July 22, 1955, p. 4. (Data on 36 doctoral and 17 masters' dissertations).

"Dissertations on Japanese Education." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 36:



367-68, June 1955. (Data on 27 doctoral and 13 masters' dissertations written since 1945).

"The Literature of Japanese Education, 1945-1954." By Walter C. Eells. Hamden, Conn. Shoe String Press, 1955, viii, 210 p. (Data, including annotations, on 33 doctoral and 19 masters' dissertations).

In addition, the following have been accepted for publication:

"American Doctoral Dissertations on Education in Iraq." *The New Teacher*, Baghdad, Iraq. (Data on 12 dissertations).

"American Doctoral Dissertations on Education in Italy." *Scuola e Città*, Florence, Italy. (Data on 41 dissertations).

Others are pending with periodicals in Egypt (23 titles), France (54 titles), Greece (16 titles), India (83 titles), Mexico (32 titles), Pakistan (8 titles), Puerto Rico (24 titles), and South Africa (17 titles).

In each of the articles mentioned above, after a brief introductory statement, data are given only on the four essentials, author, title, institution, and date.

Much more extensive and useful forms of publication are involved in two monographs which cover a larger area than a single country which I have prepared at the request of the Middle East Institute and the Pan American Union.

The Middle East Institute (Washington, D. C.), in September 1955, published in mimeographed form the 28-page monograph, "American Doctoral Dissertations on Education in Countries of the Middle East." It covers 184 dissertations, written at 37 institutions, concerned with education in 16 countries of the Middle East from Libya to India. In addition to the four basic items already listed, I found such data with reference to publication in full, in abstract, or in microfilm for 100 dissertations—considerably more than half of them.

A much more ambitious request was made by the cultural relations officials of the Pan American Union which will result in the publication next month of a monograph, "Doctoral Dissertations on Education in Latin America." For the 135 dissertations to be included in this publication, I was asked to furnish not only all the types of information described for the Middle East monograph, but also to write more or less extensive abstracts of each dissertation. For this purpose I examined all of the 68 dissertations published in full or in abstract form as found in the Library of Congress, the Library of the U. S. Office of Education, and the library of Catholic University of America, as well as several manuscript copies also available in these libraries. For the others the Columbus Memorial

Library of the Pan American Union undertook to secure manuscript copies by interlibrary loan from the libraries of the institutions at which they were written. From these I prepared appropriate abstracts, usually from 200 to 500 words in length. From a few institutions it was not possible to secure such cooperation, but abstracts are provided for 95% of the dissertations covering education in the various countries of Latin America. I also prepared a comprehensive index of authors, institutions, and topics.

I have been requested by the Far Eastern Association (Ann Arbor, Michigan) to prepare a monograph similar to the one described above for the Middle East Institute, including some 300 dissertations concerning education in a dozen countries which are included in the territory which the Far Eastern Association covers. I expect to complete the work for this next month.

Thinking that special selections from the total number of available dissertations might be of interest and value primarily to students concerned with a particular field of education, rather than on a geographical basis, I also prepared a series of articles devoted to various topical groupings. Each of them gives only the four basic items—author, title, institution, and date—in addition to a short introductory statement. The following have been published:

"American Doctoral Dissertations on Secondary Education in Foreign Countries." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 40: 166-75, May, 1956. (Data on 121 dissertations).

"American Doctoral Dissertations on Adult Education in Foreign Countries." *Adult Education*, 6:117-19, Winter, 1956. (Data on 62 dissertations).

"American Doctoral Dissertations on the Education of Women in Foreign Countries." *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, 19: 79-81, Jan., 1956. (Data on 31 dissertations).

"American Doctoral Dissertations on Teacher Education in Foreign Countries." *Journal of Teacher Education*, 6: 301-304, Dec., 1955. (Data on 82 dissertations).

"American Doctoral Dissertations on Personnel Problems and Procedures in Foreign Countries." *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 34: 226-28, Dec., 1955. (Data on 49 dissertations).

"Doctoral Dissertations on Social Studies in Foreign Countries." *Social Education*, 20: 23-26, 28, Jan., 1956. (Data on 82 dissertations).

"American Doctoral Dissertation on Health, Physical Education, and Recreation in Foreign Countries." *Research Quarterly of the*

*American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*, 27: 119-21, March, 1946. (Data on 30 dissertations).

These make a total of 21 articles and monographs on doctoral dissertations on education in foreign countries which have been published or are in process of publication. In addition, articles have been accepted on educational psychology (32 titles) by the *Journal of Educational Psychology*, and on art education (6 titles) by the *Journal of Art Education*.

I have also prepared but have not yet found any journal interested in publishing similar articles dealing with higher education (83 titles), elementary education (80 titles), teaching of English (32 titles), scientific and mathematical education (33 titles), vocational education (39 titles), music education (12 titles), audio-visual education (11 titles), and religious education (300 titles).

What sources are available for such a compilation as outlined in the preceding pages? The best single general source is probably "Doctoral Dissertations Accepted by American Universities" (New York: H. W. Wilson Co.), a series of 22 annual volumes which began in 1934, but it is not complete even for the years which it covers, and some of the dates given in it are not accurate. It omits more than 800 dissertations, most of them at Teachers College, Columbia University, prior to 1947. For the past eight years, comparisons are possible with the newly established annual series of the U. S. Office of Education, the *Circulars* "Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions." The latter series shows more than 500 doctorates not represented in the Wilson volumes for the same years.

Another important source used was the annual series, "Bibliography of Research Studies in Education" (Washington: U. S. Office of Education, 1929-1941, 13 volumes, and continued in manuscript with some 25,000 entries through 1950-51).

For years prior to 1934, three sources were particularly useful: (1) W. S. Monroe's "Titles of Masters' and Doctors' Theses in Education Accepted by American Colleges and Universities" (Urbana: University of Illinois, 1920 to 1928, 6 volumes); (2) "American Doctoral Dissertations Printed" (Washington: Library of Congress, 1912 to 1928, 27 volumes); and (3) Ruth Gray's "Doctors' Theses in Education" (Washington: U. S. Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 60, 1935) which lists 797 dissertations deposited in the library of the Office prior to September 1934.

Several other specialized bibliographies issued by various agencies and organization and numerous lists of dissertations issued by individual institutions were used, especially for the earlier years not system-

atically covered by any of the general sources mentioned above. Information given in these sources was frequently supplemented by reference to published abstracts in *Microfilm Abstracts* and its successor *Dissertation Abstracts* and by the various abstract series published by individual institutions.

When all other sources failed, resource was had to the unique collection of some 85,000 catalogues of American colleges and universities in the library of the U. S. Office of Education, an invaluable file not duplicated anywhere else in the country. Some of them reach back to the opening of the Office in 1867. Many of them print in their annual issues, especially for earlier years, the names and dissertation titles for those on whom the doctorate was conferred.

I have sketched fairly adequately the basic work involved in locating and making available information concerning American doctoral dissertations regarding education in foreign countries, although further extensions and refinements are possible. I have secured available publication data, for only about half of the dissertations, including those in the Middle East and Latin American groups. It would be worth while to secure similar data for the remaining half of the dissertations. But this would justify the necessary time and effort only if some institution, organization, or foundation would be interested in publishing the entire list in some form as a contribution to the literature of scholarly source materials. To date, however, I have not found any such agency ready to undertake such complete publication.

Meanwhile, in the past few months, I have turned my attention, as time permitted, to an effort to compile a similar list of masters' theses dealing with education in foreign countries. While not as substantial, extensive, and scholarly as doctoral dissertations, many masters' theses contain material of distinct value, even though it may be on some more restricted aspect of a subject. Furthermore, information regarding masters' theses is much less widely known and more difficult to secure than that concerning doctoral dissertations. Source material is less plentiful. Very few have been published in full or even in abstract form. Thus they are almost lost to scholarship outside of the institution in which they were written. Obviously, this is a loss that is distinctly unfortunate.

Since the total number of earned masters' degrees conferred in the United States in the last 95 years has been more than seven times the number of doctors' degrees (masters, 986,221; doctors, 131,049, according to the tables which I prepared for the seventh edition of "American Universities and Colleges"), it might be expected that the number of masters' theses treating foreign education would be

correspondingly greater than the number of doctoral dissertations concerned with foreign education.

A better criterion for estimation, however, presumably would be not *total* degrees but degrees *in education*. In the seven-year period from 1948 to 1954, as shown by the U. S. Office of Education *Circulars* referred to above, the number of doctors in education was 6,978; the number of masters was 147,276—or 21 times as many masters as doctors. Since there are about 1200 doctoral dissertations dealing with education in foreign countries, may we expect 21 times as many, or almost 25,000 masters' theses in the same field?

I have not yet completed my search, especially for the earlier years prior to 1920, but I have covered fairly adequately the later years of greater productivity. I have about 2200 cards representing masters's theses in foreign education, and the total number will probably not be much in excess of 2500, or about one-tenth of the figure suggested in the preceding paragraph. Why the great difference? One important reason is that the writing of a thesis is not a requirement for a master's degree in education in all institutions as it is universally for the doctor's degree. But the conclusion is inescapable that a much smaller proportion of students studying for advanced degrees in education select topics in the field of foreign education at the master's than at the doctor's level. Still the number is substantial—probably about twice the number of doctorates.

When I have completed my study of masters' theses on foreign education, some time next summer or fall, I trust, it would be highly desirable, that some agency or organization should then find it worthwhile to publish the entire list of both doctoral and masters' dissertations on foreign education in a single comprehensive monograph. Such a volume probably would have between 3500 and 4000 titles and should include full publication data, suitable cross-references, and a comprehensice index of authors, institutions, countries, and topics.

Walter Crosby Eells is a former professor of Education, Stanford University, and former adviser on higher education to the Supreme Commander, Allied Powers, in Japan.

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#### BOOK REVIEWS

*Curriculum Improvement*, Vernon E. Anderson, Ronald Press Co., New York 1956, pp. 1-468.

*Curriculum Improvement* attempts to bring the most modern insights of human relations and group dynamics to the construction of curriculum. It involves the climate in which action takes place; the



role of teachers and administrators in curriculum construction; and also deals helpfully with such problems as working with community, teacher-pupil planning and evaluation. All these emphases are contrived to lead the reader through the curriculum aspect of education by a "process" frame of reference.

As would be expected, the emphasis is upon involvement of as many people as possible, not only in the creation of objectives, but also in the development of program and the entirety of the evaluative process. This newer technique or approach to curriculum construction comes nearer to assuring all concerned that an understanding has been reached when decisions are made, and that the process itself becomes a part of the curriculum, for it sets the climate in which people relate to each other.

This writer would wish a greater emphasis on basic research, which perhaps could not be done by study groups in faculties, but conducted by resources that go sometimes beyond the school and its program. Such research would include basic psychological factors of learning and specific factors of community life which bear upon curriculum.

At the level of evaluation, a dimension that is scarcely stressed might be included. This would be the changes in behavior in the community as a result of instruction. After all, it is not enough to show evidences that people involved in group learn differently or have different ideas, and so on, as they relate to school climates and the social world which is the school. The acid test of better intergroup relations, for instance, in the community is: do the people of the community relate to each other in more creative ways. The acid test of evaluation of a program of health is: are the people of the community more healthful. These would be sociological insights brought to bear rather than the kinds of things that are usually involved in curriculum planning, teacher-pupil conferences and the process patterns of evaluation. In other words, while the science of group process is a needed dimension of curriculum construction, this author would not belittle the role of basic research into fundamental concepts of child-growth and development, both as they relate to the psychology of schools and the sociological forces of community life.

The book is one which undoubtedly will find wide acceptance as a text in curriculum development, and one which should be widely recommended wherever educators sit down to try to decide what should go into the experiences that are brought to bear in children's lives to secure growth and development toward democratic ends.

DAN W. DODSON

*Problems of American Society*, Third Edition, John F. Cuber, Robert A. Cuber, Robert A. Harper, William F. Kenkel, New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1956.

This is a useful volume. The contradictions, confusions and value conflicts in modern American society are interestingly discussed and are analyzed in a way which will excite the imagination of young students and set them to thinking about things which they have always taken for granted. The book would be an extremely useful tool for a first course in social studies as well as the sociology course for which it seems intended.

On the debit side, it could be said that the revisions do not always bring the illustrations up to date. Certainly in this respect this third edition could have been better. However, this is a minor objection. The total impact of the book is such that wherever there is no course in which it could be directly assigned, it would serve as useful supplementary reading material designed to help make students more analytical in any related course work. The chapters on "Social and Psychological Deviations," "Adolescence," and "National Security and Civil Liberties," are worth the purchase price alone.

The authors tell us, "the core thesis of this book has been that social problems represent conditions over which there is a clash of values concerning their nature, their importance, or their treatment." Further, in the final chapter entitled, "Rational Approach to Our Value Heritage," they point out that values are extra rational in character and that one cannot prove the validity of a value as one can do a mathematical problem. They also state that seeming logical inconsistencies may often constitute social consistency in our confused society. It is their opinion that the crucial inconsistencies between the older non-rational acceptance of value positions and rational examination of these positions have caused a great many of the value conflicts of the American society.

Their concluding sentence poses what they consider to be the key question "How rational can our society be—how rational does it want to be?" (certainly a mouthful).

While the book has some weaknesses in terms of the analogies which have been used, its overall merit suggests it to the teacher of young students as an excellent gateway text which will serve as a springboard for more serious and concentrated study. On this basis it can be unequivocally recommended.

ARNOLD L. GOREN  
*Ass. Prof. of Ed.*

*How to Get Better Schools: A Tested Program*, by David R. Dreiman. New York: Harper and Bros., 1956. xvii+267 pp. \$3.50.

The American public schools have served as powerful agents of social progress. In past generations they transformed successive waves of immigrants into good American citizens. More recently, the concept of universal education, spreading from elementary schools to high schools, and now taking root in our colleges, has given substance to the ideal of equality of opportunity. In future years these schools will face the problems of desegregation, automation, and preparing Americans for world leadership.

Today they must meet two challenges—shortages of buildings and teachers and widespread criticism of the quality of education. These problems stem from two causes—the “rising tide of students,” growing out of the high birth rates of the nineteen-forties, and the expansion of education to give a high school education to every child. Where three out of ten young people of high school age were enrolled in 1920, eight out of ten go to school today. As a result, the American high school has been converted from a “narrow pathway of college preparation for the small minority to a broad network of highways, unlimited in direction except by talent and interest for the many.” Hence the problems of housing the school population, recruiting a professional staff, and devising a curriculum broad enough to fulfill the needs of hundreds of thousands of youths who two generations ago would not have been in school at all.

Mr. Dreiman and the National Citizens Council for the Public Schools, which sponsored this volume, firmly believe local citizens’ organizations must take the initiative in solving these problems. This book was written to inspire such groups to act and to guide their actions. It points out the strategic areas in which citizen participation can be effective and offers sound advice on tactics and strategy. It suggests appropriate techniques for such objectives as recruiting high-calibre teachers, working with school boards, conducting campaigns for achieving specific goals, and obtaining a good press. The author calls it a “do-it-yourself handbook.”

This little volume is admirably suited to its purposes. It aims may be idealistic, but its program of action is thoroughly practical. As the subtitle indicates, this is a “tested” program, for it draws on the very real experiences of scores of community groups. An unexpected by-product is a revealing and informative picture of local school administration and its community relations which few schoolmen can derive from their own professional experiences.

Everyone interested in our free public schools will welcome a book which arouses citizen interest in American education and enlists the

public's moral support. This kind of community backing helped develop top-ranking school systems in such cities as Scarsdale, Bronxville, Manhasset, and Great Neck. It should be noted, however, that these are relatively prosperous suburban communities and that few school districts can afford to spend \$560 to \$700 per pupil, as they have done. By and large, local real estate taxes can no longer carry the ball alone. Since wartime inflation overtook us, local governments have been unable to raise real estate taxes as rapidly as the mounting cost of living. Today only personal and corporate income taxes can tap the principal sources of wealth. That is why liberal state aid must supplement the kind of local campaign described in this book. The communities mentioned above did not build up outstanding school systems on local resources alone; they all benefitted from generous aid from New York State.

If the best in education is to be available to all American children, an enlightened public must support efforts to raise the quality of schooling. Direct citizen pressure, such as this volume advocates, can help. But grass roots action cannot do the whole job. Financial support by the forty-eight states, and possibly by the federal government, must buttress community efforts to improve educational services.

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STATEMENT REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF AUGUST 24, 1912, AS AMENDED BY THE ACTS OF MARCH 3, 1933, AND JULY 2, 1946 (Title 39, United States Code, Section 233) SHOWING THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, AND CIRCULATION OF

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Dan W. Dodson, Editor

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 16th day of October, 1956.

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